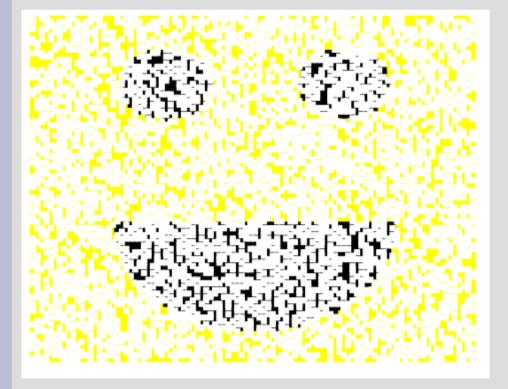
K-nearest neighbors (Ch. 18.8)



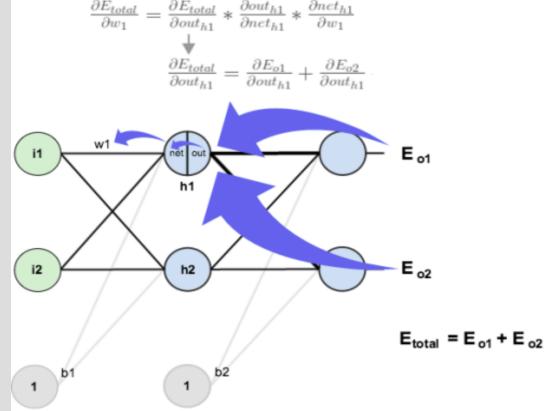


Announcements

Midterm2 grades up on gradescope

Review: Back-propagation

For W_1 it would look like:



(book describes how to dynamic program this)

Learning types

Neural networks are what we call a <u>parametric</u> <u>model</u>, (not to be confused with the statistics definition) as the inputs are fixed

What we will talk about today (k-nearest neighbor) is a <u>non-parametric model</u> as it will not fix the input space (no assumptions about parameters from examples in model)

What type were our decision trees?

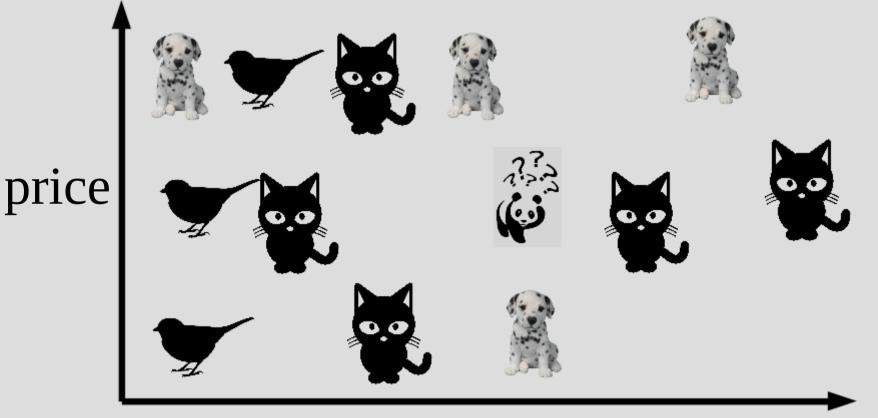
Non-parametric model

The most simple non-parametric model would be a simple look-up table

 Store every example seen(and classification)
When asked to classify see if example seen before... if not just guess

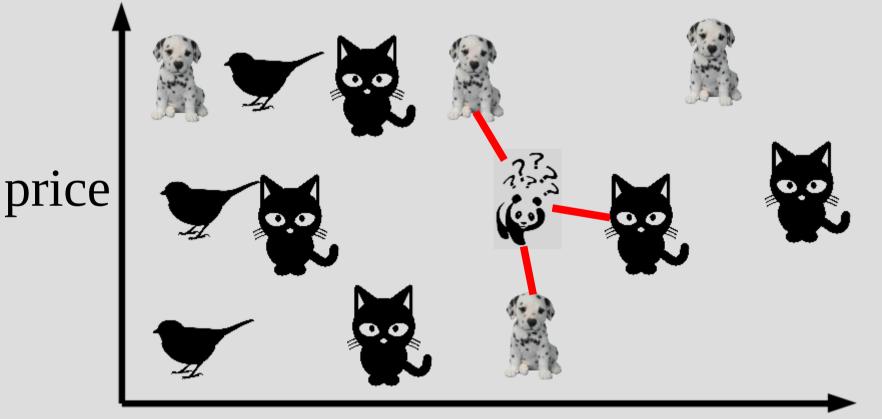
The accuracy of this model is fairly bad on "new" examples, but it is actually close to being a decent algorithm (despite basic)

For example, what is the unknown animal?



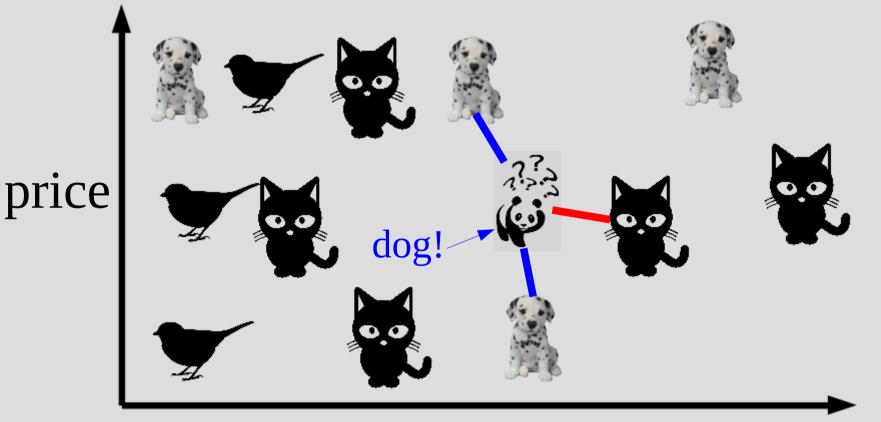
number things destroyed

Assume k=3, so find the 3 nearest neighbors



number things destroyed

Most common neighbor is dog, so our guess



number things destroyed

Rather than just arbitrarily guessing on new examples, we find some "close" examples already seen and use their classification (vote)

To do this we need to define:

- 1. What is "close"?
- 2. How many neighbors?

These parameters can be optimized/improved in cross-validation(leave a few out of training)

1. What is "close"?

Answer: our old friend, the p-norm $||x||_p = (|x_1|^p + |x_2|^p + ...)^{1/p}$

Normally, p=2 (Euclidean distance) is used if similar attributes(e.g. (x,y,z) position)

p=1 (Manhattan) if dissimilar(age, height, etc.)

0.5

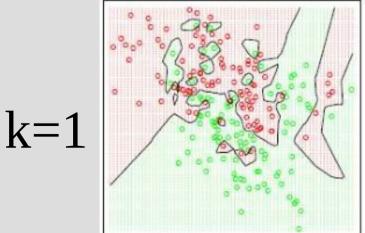
-0.5

0.5

2. How many neighbors (argument "k")?

Answer: Dunno
$$()_()_/$$

Small k tends to "overfit", large k "underfits" (What happens when k=all points/examples?)



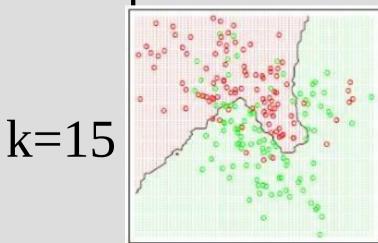


image from: Hastie, Tibshirani and Friedman, Fig 2.2 & 2.3

Remember this? Let's use it again

Example	А	В	С	D	Е	Ans
1	Т	low big		twit	5	Т
2	Т	low small		FB	8	Т
3	F	med	small	FB	2	F
4	Т	high	big	snap	3	Т
5	Т	high	small	goog	5	F
6	F	med	big	snap	1	F
7	Т	low	big	goog	9	Т
8	F	high	big	goog	7	Т
9	Т	med	small	twit	2	F
10	F	high	small	goog	4	F

replace with numbers

What problems are there with this?

Example	А	В	С	D	Е	Ans
1	1	0	1	0	5	Т
2	1	0	0	1	8	Т
3	0	1	0	1	2	F
4	1	2	1	2	3	Т
5	1	2	0	3	5	F
6	0	1	1	2	1	F
7	1	0	1	3	9	Т
8	0	2	1	3	7	Т
9	1	1	0	1	2	F
10	0	2	0	3	4	F

Scale is important, as we are going to find distance Example A B C D E Ans

	Example	A	Ъ	C	D	L	AIIS		
	1	1	0	1	0	5	Т		
	2	1	0	0	1	8	Т		
	3	0	1	0	1	2	F		
	4	1	2	1	2	3	Т		
	5	1	2	0	3	5	F		
	6	0	1	1	2	1	F		
	7	1	0	1	3	9	Т		
	8	0	2	1	3	7	Т		
	9	1	1	0	1	2	F		
	10	0	2	0	3	4	F		
	n to a	ath	01			240) on r		

closer together

more spread out

Let's use this normalized-ish version

Example	А	В	С	D	Е	Ans
1	1	0	1	0	0.5	Т
2	1	0	0	0.33	0.8	Т
3	0	0.5	0	0.33	0.2	F
4	1	1	1	0.67	0.3	Т
5	1	1	0	1	0.5	F
6	0	0.5	1	0.67	0.1	F
7	1	0	1	1	0.9	Т
8	0	1	1	1	0.7	Т
9	1	0.5	0	0.33	0.2	F
10	0	1	0	1	0.4	F

Suppose we have k=3 and using Manhattan distance (1-norm)

If we saw new data: [1,0,1,0.33,0.2]

We would find the distance to each of the 10 examples

Example	А	В	С	D	Е	Ans
1	1	0	1	0	0.5	Т
2	1	0	0	0.33	0.8	Т
3	0	0.5	0	0.33	0.2	F
4	1	1	1	0.67	0.3	Т
5	1	1	0	1	0.5	F
6	0	0.5	1	0.67	0.1	F
7	1	0	1	1	0.9	Т
8	0	1	1	1	0.7	Т
9	1	0.5	0	0.33	0.2	F
10	0	1	0	1	0.4	F

New data = [1,0,1,0.33,0.2]										
Example 1=[1,0,1,0 ,0.5]										
Distance(new,E1) = $0+0+0+0.33+0.3 = 0.63$										
Distance(new,E2)=1.6	Example	А	В	С	D	E	Ans			
Distance(new,E3)=2.5	1	1	0	1	0	0.5	Т			
	2	1	0	0	0.33	0.8	Т			
Distance(new,E4)=1.44	3	0	0.5	0	0.33	0.2	F			
Distance(new,E5)=2.97	4	1	1	1	0.67	0.3	Т			
Distance(new,E6)=1.93	5	1	1	0	1	0.5	F			
Distance(new,E7)=1.37	6	0	0.5	1	0.67	0.1	F			
Distance(new,E8)=3.17	7	1	0	1	1	0.9	Т			
Distance(new,E9)=1.5	8	0	1	1	1	0.7	Т			
	9	1	0.5	0	0.33	0.2	F			
Distance(new,E10)=3.87	10	0	1	0	1	0.4	F			

New data = [1,0,1,0.33,0.2] 3 nearest								
Example 1=[1,0,1,0 ,0).5]							
Distance(new, E1) = 0+0	+0+0.	33-	+0	.3	= ().63	3	
Distance(new,E2)=1.6	Example	А	В	С	D	Е	Ans	
Distance(new,E3)=2.5	1	1	0	1	0	0.5	Т	
	2	1	0	0	0.33	0.8	Т	
Distance(new,E4)=1.44	3	0	0.5	0	0.33	0.2	F	
Distance(new,E5)=2.97	4	1	1	1	0.67	0.3	Т	
Distance(new,E6)=1.93	5	1	1	0	1	0.5	F	
Distance(new,E7)=1.37	6	0	0.5	1	0.67	0.1	F	
Distance(new,E8)=3.17	7	1	0	1	1	0.9	Т	
Distance(new,E9)=1.5	8	0	1	1	1	0.7	Т	
	9	1	0.5	0	0.33	0.2	F	
Distance(new,E10)=3.87	10	0	1	0	1	0.4	F	

Since examples 1, 4 and 7 are the closest we see what output is most common among them...

E1=T E4=T E7=T

We would guess our new data is also T (3 votes for, 0 against)

Example	А	В	С	D	Е	Ans
1	1	0	1	0	0.5	Т
2	1	0	0	0.33	0.8	Т
3	0	0.5	0	0.33	0.2	F
4	1	1	1	0.67	0.3	Т
5	1	1	0	1	0.5	F
6	0	0.5	1	0.67	0.1	F
7	1	0	1	1	0.9	Т
8	0	1	1	1	0.7	Т
9	1	0.5	0	0.33	0.2	F
10	0	1	0	1	0.4	F

What are the downsides of this approach (assuming you could pick a good "k" and distance measurement/metric)?

What are the downsides of this approach (assuming you could pick a good "k" and distance measurement/metric)?

- 1. Some issues with scaling (high dimensional input space... i.e. lots of attributes)
- 2. Computational efficiency... going through all examples for one classification does not scale well...

If you have a large number of inputs/attributes (we had 5 in the previous example)...

The data tends to be more "spread out" as you simply add more things, thus larger distances

Normalizing does not fix this and it is often hard to do or shouldn't be done (normalizing makes the assumption all inputs have equal effect on output)

Often called the "curse of dimensionality"

Take a simple case... let N=10 (examples) uniformly distributed in [0,1] and k=1... then what is average distance for 2D space? (Assume distance measure is max difference)

k=1 means we need to find only one point, so on average we'd need the area of the box to be 1/10 the space, as there are 10 examples

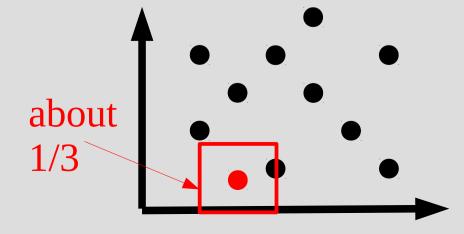
Let "L" be the side length of this box, then: $L^2 = 1/10$... or in general (d-dimensions):

 $L^d = k/N$

 $L^{d} = k/N$...or... $L = (k/N)^{1/d}$

... so in 2-D, the distance (length of box) is $\sqrt{1/10} = 0.316$, if examples in unit square ([0,1])

If we had 5 inputs (like our table), average distance would be: $(1/10)^{1/5} = 0.631$, so the higher



the dimension, the more "distant" everything seems (i.e. neighbors not really "near")

The second downside to this approach was that the naive way would be to go through all examples to find nearest

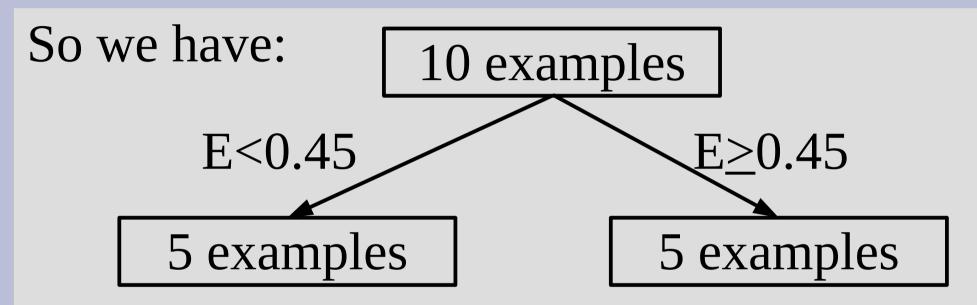
There are two ways we can speed this up:

Binary trees (take O(log N)), called
<u>k-d trees</u> ("k" is **not** number of neighbors)

2. Locally sensitive hashing (take O(1)-ish) (but this approach is approximate)

With k-d trees, we want to form a full binary tree, so we find a threshold to "split" on

One cuch is if attribute	Example	А	В	С	D	Е	Ans
One such is if attribute	1	1	0	1	0	0.5	Т
E < 0.45, we split in half	2	1	0	0	0.33	0.8	Т
	3	0	0.5	0	0.33	0.2	F
	4	1	1	1	0.67	0.3	Т
E < 0.45:	5	1	1	0	1	0.5	F
	6	0	0.5	1	0.67	0.1	F
E3, E4, E6, E9, E10	7	1	0	1	1	0.9	Т
E > 0.45:	8	0	1	1	1	0.7	Т
	9	1	0.5	0	0.33	0.2	F
E1, E2, E5, E7, E8	10	0	1	0	1	0.4	F



Continue these half splits until only leaves

This lets us make log2(N) decisions before we find a neighbor that is close ... what is the issue with this method?

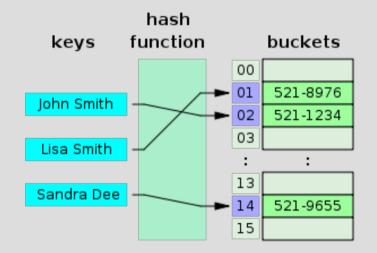
We might actually need to take both branches

For example, if E=0.45 exactly... it would be unwise to not look at neighbors with E=0.449 (as it might be closest globally)

So you might need to take both branches and evaluate more than just k-neighbors (some options might not have good half splits as well, especially if discrete data)

The second option is locally sensitive hashing

A hash in general is just a unique-ish identifier (out of this class scope)



We want hashes where the unique-ish ID is "close" if the examples are "near", these are called <u>locally sensitive hash</u> functions

One pretty simple such hash function is to just pull out a single attribute, so a hash on A:

Key A=1: E1, E2, E4, E5, E7, E9

Key A=0: E3, E6, E8, E10

Example	A	В	С	D	Е	Ans
1	1	0	1	0	0.5	Т
2	1	0	0	0.33	0.8	Т
3	0	0.5	0	0.33	0.2	F
4	1	1	1	0.67	0.3	Т
5	1	1	0	1	0.5	F
6	0	0.5	1	0.67	0.1	F
7	1	0	1	1	0.9	Т
8	0	1	1	1	0.7	Т
9	1	0.5	0	0.33	0.2	F
10	0	1	0	1	0.4	F

Mathematically this is called a <u>projection</u>, as you are reducing/mapping to a smaller set

You could also use hyperplanes/vector to classify either binary or as an integer

Let's pick the random a random vector: [-1, -1, 1, 1, 1]

For binary classification, we just look at the sign of the example dot-producted with the vector r=[-1, -1, 1, 1, 1]

	1		$\begin{bmatrix} -1 \end{bmatrix}$					
	0		-1					
$E1 \cdot r =$	1	•	1					
	0		1					
	0.5		1					
		-						
= -1 + 0 + 1 + 0 + 0.5								
= 0).5							
		-						

So E1 goes bin positive

Example	A	В	С	D	E	Ans
1	1	0	1	0	0.5	Т
2	1	0	0	0.33	0.8	Т
3	0	0.5	0	0.33	0.2	F
4	1	1	1	0.67	0.3	Т
5	1	1	0	1	0.5	F
6	0	0.5	1	0.67	0.1	F
7	1	0	1	1	0.9	Т
8	0	1	1	1	0.7	Т
9	1	0.5	0	0.33	0.2	F
10	0	1	0	1	0.4	F

We end up with the following dot products:

So this hash+vector would put...

Positive bin:		Example	А	В	С	D	Е	Ans
	E1: 0.5	1	1	0	1	0	0.5	Т
E1, E2, E3,	E2: 0.13	2	1	0	0	0.33	0.8	Т
E6, E7, E8, E10	E3: 0.03	3	0	0.5	0	0.33	0.2	F
	E4: -0.03	4	1	1	1	0.67	0.3	Т
	E5: - 0.5	5	1	1	0	1	0.5	F
Negative bin:	E6: 1.27	6	0	0.5	1	0.67	0.1	F
	E7: 1.9	7	1	0	1	1	0.9	Т
E4, E5, E9	E8: 1.7	8	0	1	1	1	0.7	Т
	E9: -0.97	9	1	0.5	0	0.33	0.2	F
	E10: 0.4	10	0	1	0	1	0.4	F

If we want more bins, we could pick two random numbers, a and b, where a>b

Then make the bins: $\left|\frac{E \cdot r + b}{a}\right|$ **E1: 0.5** Pick a=0.5, b=0.2 and we have dot E2: 0.13 E3: 0.03 product, so just need include a & b E4: -0.03 E5: -0.5 E6: 1.27 E1 bin now: $\lfloor \frac{E \cdot r + b}{a} \rfloor = \lfloor \frac{0.5 + 0.2}{0.5} \rfloor = \lfloor 1.4 \rfloor = 1$ E7: 1.9 E2 bin now: $\lfloor \frac{E \cdot r + b}{a} \rfloor = \lfloor \frac{0.13 + 0.2}{0.5} \rfloor = \lfloor 0.66 \rfloor = 0$ E8: 1.7 E9: -0.97 ... and so on ... E10: 0.4

What you would do is then use the same hash function on the new input/query and find the distance only between examples in that bin

This is an approximate approach, and some hashes have theoretical bounds (probability that the nearest will not be in the bin)

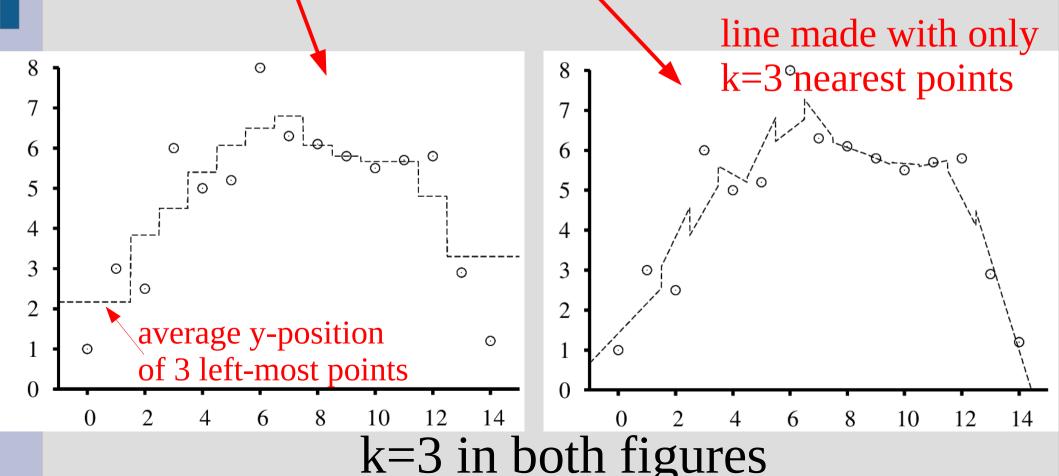
You can also have multiple hashes and union the examples across all bins

Other resources

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MDniRwXizWo



You could do regression by taking k-nearest average position or linear regression



Neither of these are great as not continuous, so let's investigate a 3^{rd} option

<u>Locally weighted regression</u> uses a weight function to ignore faraway points

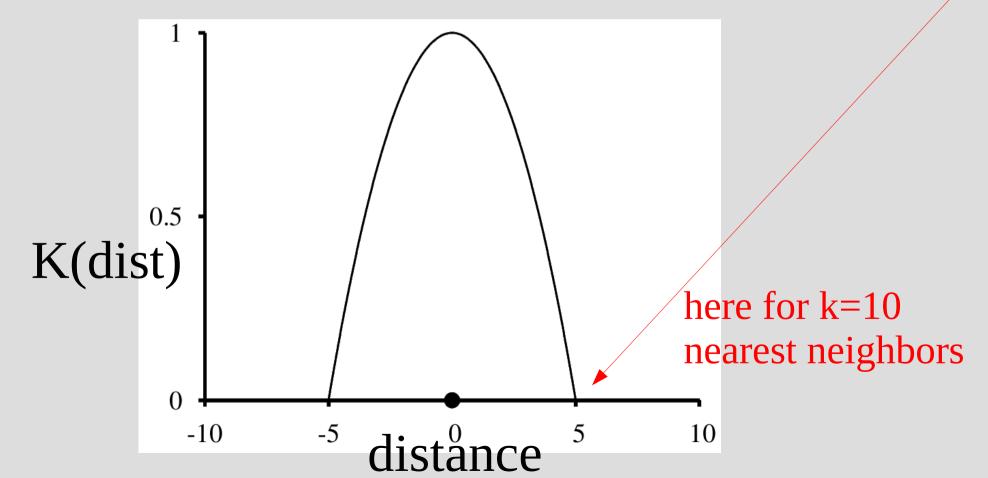
(Note: this weight function is called a <u>kernel</u>, which is something completely different than the mathematical definition of a kernel... or even the OS definition in csci...)

You could use something like a Gaussian as a weighted distance, but that is a bit complex

The weight function/kernel should have: 1. Maximum at distance = 0

- 2. Symmetric
- 3. Integral finite/bounded (from $-\infty$ to ∞)

The book gives this kernel, but the choice is somewhat arbitrary: $K(distance) = \max(0, 1 - (2 \cdot |distance|/k)^2)$



Once we have the local weight function, we then just solve using gradient descent:

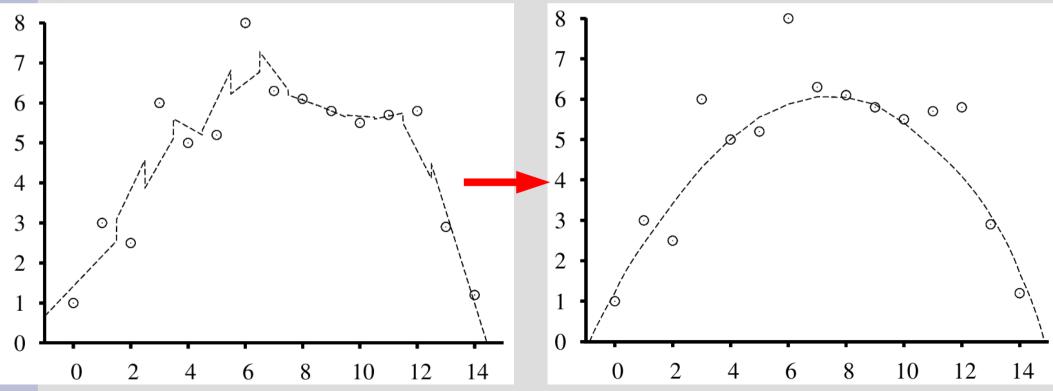
$$w^* = \underset{w}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \sum_{j} K(Distance(x_j, x_{new}))(y_j - w \cdot x_j)^2$$

sum over all points (many zero) x_{new} is point you want to find y value for

Then your y estimate for x_{new} is: $h(x_{new}) = w \cdot x_{new}$

(most should look familiar from normal linear regression)

Using this locally weighted regression, we get a much smoother fit (but requires doing gradient descent for each answer)



Parameter Optimization

For all of these there are some parameters that need to be somewhat optimized

What "k" is best? What distance function to use? What kernel to use?

All of these can be found by withholding part of training data (cross-validation), and some can be done quite efficiently